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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a discussion of the theory of bilingual education, including ideas developed by several linguistic researchers. Various aspects of bilingual education are discussed including objectives, definition, raison d'etre, dominance and balance, learning, types, and barriers. Second language learning is considered along with reasons for studying a second language, relevant misconceptions, and obstacles to learning. The role of the effective teacher, bilingual word meaning, and test validity are covered in the paper. The author reports on educational experiments in bilingualism and provides a suggested lesson plan and bibliography. (VM)

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THEORY AND PRACTICE OF BILINGUALISM

by

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INTRODUCTION

This project on the nature of Bilingualism is primarily based on second language teaching and learning methods. Linguistic theory and classroom observable instructional devices and techniques are included in this project.

The theoretical aspect of this study is based on linguistic researchers' views: John B. Carroll, Clay B. Christensen and Robert Shawl, Leonard Newmark, William R. Parker, Robert Politzer and Chas. Staubach, Sol Saporta, and others.

The final theoretical step of this study compares second language teaching and learning effectiveness in thirty-five countries. The starting age of the students and the geographical locations of the countries are the prime variables.

The practical observational step of this project includes observable techniques and devices which were used by some second language instructors that may prove beneficial for improving second language learning effectiveness.

Classroom experimental data are also included in this study, which is based on a control group of eighteen Mexican students, who are beginners in a second language learning situation—English.

GOALS OF A BILINGUAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

1. To use English as a second language in an intercultural milieu created for the disadvantaged.

2. To establish bilingual programs for migrant workers with native language learning, but with English as the target language.

3. To organize, propose, estimate, and show a program content with pertinent intellectual ideas for low-social-economic children.

4. To devise a plan and stress particular strategic regions where language barriers result primarily because of economic poverty, lack of cultural exchange, or isolation.

5. Evaluate the environment of the disadvantaged, e.g., their home, family life, number of children, brothers and sisters in the same household, as well as of other relatives living in the family.

6. Evaluate individual children's educational problems in particular Southern California regions: e.g., drop outs, job training, truancy, and delinquency.

7. Use particular measures that would help overcome linguistic barriers: example, flash cards, home economic magazines or some other material brought in by children from their home environment, or provided by the classroom instructor.

8. Evaluate teacher-student learning activities and utilize self-correcting devices and techniques; for example, tape recorders

or model micro-lessons which an individual student can listen to for self-correction.

9. Propose specific goals for those immediately responsible for the physical and emotional care of the individual child; for example, the parent, teacher, principal, or church member who is well acquainted with the child's home and school environment.

10. Instill a degree of tolerance and openmindedness for those wanting to implement innovative problem solving ideas and methods (Elizabeth Ott, 1969).

WHY BECOME BILINGUAL?

Learning a second language is significant not only because an educated person should be able to understand his foreign neighbor's culture and customs by means of his neighbor's tongue, but also because not learning his foreign neighbor's language shows disinterest for his way of life.

On the other hand, if a person attempts to learn his neighbor's language, he also learns about his neighbor's customs and culture. Thus a person learns to appreciate his neighbor's living standard and life style. For example: in Spanish we say, Tengo catorce años. In its literal translation, it means, I have fourteen years. This tells us that age or maturity is associated with possession, or it implies permanence (staticism). But in English, I am fourteen years old, means that age is associated with a state of being, which has a temporary connotation, or it implies change.

Howard Howe II, United States Commissioner of Education, points out that European children (unlike American children) adjust

easily to their neighbor's way of life, because they learn their foreign neighbor's diverse cultural customs while studying his tongue (Howe, 1969).

But American children, states Howe, frequently isolate themselves from cultural diversity. He believes that cultural diversity not only helps to ease international relations, but most importantly, it may aid in diminishing domestic racial discrimination and prejudice. "For the whole history of discrimination is based on the idea that because someone else is different, he is somehow worse."

By teaching all American children, regardless of color or national origin, that cultural diversity is not feared but accepted, even encouraged, we may be able to rid ourselves of distrust and hatred among all people, not only Americans.

DEFINITION OF BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism can best be defined as the ability to be fluent in two languages. It involves not only speaking and writing in two different tongues, but also the ability to comprehend the meaning of what others attempt to say, either orally, or in writing. A truly bilingual child is almost as comfortable in a second language as he is in his mother tongue; he is able to understand, speak, read, and write in both languages easily and relatively accurately (M. E. Smoth, 1935).

Only a few children, however, are truly bilingual. Most of those children considered bilingual still use one language to a greater extent than another. A child may be regarded as bilingual in several

combinations: he may understand two languages (his native tongue and a second language); he may be able to speak two languages but write only one, etc.. One may conclude that there is no specific definition as to who may be considered truly bilingual (A. T. Jersild, 1960).

BILINGUAL DOMINANCE AND BALANCE

Bilingual dominance means that in spite of a person's ability to use two languages, he is more proficient in one than in the other. When a child is equally proficient in two languages, then he is regarded as bilingually balanced. This balance pertains to speaking, reading, and writing abilities, respectively.

The only way that bilingual dominance or balance can be determined is by considering the learner's fluency and accuracy in the two languages which he uses. When a learner becomes fluent in the second language, his speech patterns become automatic. Rather than considering linguistic processes, he is able to concentrate on the appropriateness and organization of what he wants to say. He now speaks fluently without hesitation and with few grammatical errors (Smoth, 1957 and 1961).

A child's dominant speech patterns depend largely upon the conditions under which he became bilingual. At the present time most bilingual youngsters in the United States have foreign-born parents. Generally, they hear their parents' language in the neighborhood, as well as at home.

Upon the child's entrance into school his contact with English speaking people helps him to learn English as a second language. But because his parents' language surrounds his environment to a greater extent than English, which he uses in school, he may become more fluent in his mother tongue than in English; especially, since he spends more time with his parents and friends than in school. His mother tongue remains his dominant language (J. P. Soffietti, 1955).

American children living abroad learn quickly the language in which they reside. They may learn their native tongue from their family members or friends, because of their close association with them. Their native language often becomes limited to conversation.

But in the United States and abroad, some upper socio-economic groups have foreign-born nurses or maids, who instruct their youngsters in a second language from the day he begins to talk, hoping that he will "speak like a native." This type of instruction, however, limits the child's second language vocabulary to that of the nursery and only allows him to communicate with family members or friends. But his linguistic dominance or balance will depend largely upon the amount of time that he spends in his home environment.

On the other hand, those American children who attend private schools often study a second language, generally, French, and tend to become bilingual in it. This may be due to a favorable environment as well as intensive second language study (J. V. Jensen, 1962).

We may conclude that the effect bilingualism has on children depends largely upon (1) the circumstances under which a child becomes

bilingual, and (2) the relationship of the child's dominant language to that of the neighborhood, school, and peer group. The peer group may influence a child's emotional and social speech patterns and develop (or help develop) his personality (Smoth, 1957, 1961).

BILINGUAL LEARNING

Each language has its own vocabulary, grammatical structures, words, meanings, pronunciation of sound variety, or sound combinations. The child who is learning two languages simultaneously has to learn two different sets of vocabulary for each object which he names, or for every thought he expresses. He has to learn two sets of grammatical structures—one often in direct contrast with the other. In addition, he must learn the pronunciation of the same sound combinations differently. The (r) for instance, is pronounced different in English than in French, thought it has the same Latin printed letter. These learning procedures are recognized as being very difficult for junior or senior high school students because their native speech patterns are fully established. They are even more difficult for a child who has not yet mastered his native tongue adequately enough to feel at ease under most circumstances. Consequently, the child may combine the two languages which he is learning and fail to keep them separated into two unique and distinct linguistic speech patterns (N. T. Darcy, 1953 and Jensen, 1960).

When a child begins to learn a second language after having mastered his first, his second language may prove to be different

from that of a native speaker, mainly because he is unable to hear the correct sounds as a native does. (See observation No. 3, page 32.) There are, of course, exceptional linguistic students and instructors who have an innate ability to correctly master pronunciation patterns.

KINDS OF BILINGUALISM

The majority of bilingual children have a dominant language. When the child's dominant language differs from the language of his friends at school or play, he may have difficulty in communicating. This difficulty in communicating increases his chances for social maladjustment. The best chances for his beneficial social adjustment can be attained if the child meets with other children whose parents are of the same national origin, in school or in the neighborhood, and are equally bilingual (Fishman, 1955 and Smoth, 1961).

Some linguistic researchers believe that if a child's second language becomes dominant, he may speak it with an accent which he may never lose completely (F. G. Koenig, 1953). (See observation No. 3.)

Furthermore, the child is likely to make more grammatical errors in his second language (English) than a monolingual child of the same age and intelligence level. Because of his inability to express himself correctly in the second language, he may become self-conscious when speaking. (Jensen, 1962 and J. P. Soffietti, 1955.) The child's uneasiness and tenseness may cause him to stutter and intensify his speech and hamper his social adjustment (C. S. Bluemel, 1957).

Upon attempting to express himself, the child may become aware of boredom or annoyance among those around him and cause him to become a "quiet child." Quiet children who contribute little to the group often feel neglected or rejected. Under such circumstances a bilingual child may have communication and social adjustment problems which could effect personality development (W. R. Holland, 1956 and Koenig, 1953). From my personal experience I have seen college students whose bilingualism hampered their social adjustment. However, Holland's and Koenig's theory does not apply to all bilingual speakers. Maturity and the number of years that a person speaks a second language must be considered as significant variables.

Academic problems may arise because a child's dominant language is other than that of his peers. Because he may be linguistically unprepared for school, he may feel insecure to a greater extent than most monolingual children entering school. (Holland, 1956 and Smoth, 1961).

Anatasi, Cordova, Kittel, and Lewis found that Puerto Rican children have segregated themselves into their own group, and became apathetically passive when they had to cope suddenly in an all-English school. They tended to have a greater language difficulty than monolinguals in those subjects requiring reading accuracy, comprehension, and hearing vocabulary. Arithmetical word problems also proved difficult. Monolingual children spoke with greater accuracy, better usage of grammar and pronunciation (Sister M. A. Carrow, 1957). However, the same study indicated that reading ability

differed less than speaking ability among monolinguals and bilinguals. This occurred because both groups had equal time spans in formal classroom instruction (Carrow, 1957). The researchers question the validity of tests administered in English to bilingual students, because the test often reflects a child's linguistic difficulty (A. Anastasi, 1953, J. E. Kittel, and D. G. Lewis, 1959).

BILINGUAL BARRIERS

Learning two languages simultaneously often delays a child's speech development in both languages. His greatest difficulty comes with attempting to learn vocabulary, constructing lengthy negative sentences, and articulating (see observation No. 3). Incorrect articulation may particularly hamper his ability to speak fluently (Bluemel, 1957, Darcy, 1953, and Smoth, 1935). However, this is not true in all cases; and exceptions do exist.

Upon studying third-grade children's achievement in linguistic skills, using standardized intelligence tests, Carrow (1957) found that monolingual children had higher scores than bilingual children, and that bilingual children would never be able to catch up socially or academically with children of the same age group because of their linguistic barrier. This may be true especially of the children coming from low socio-economic groups (Darcy, 1953).

Another situation which influences the bilingual child's development is the attitude that the peer group may have toward him when he speaks the dominant language incorrectly. The four- or five-year-old child quickly learns to distinguish skin color, facial features, and

speech patterns. He may also learn that some groups are regarded by the vast majorities as inferior. Eventually, he may develop stereotyped opinions of different races, judging all members of a particular group (including his own) favorably or unfavorably. I think that we may regard this as learning prejudices from childhood on. But generally, the bilingual person may feel at home with his own group which is favorably inclined toward him because of similar cultural background (J. A. Fishman, 1955, and R. Zeligz, 1954).

Speaking several languages, however, need not prove a barrier, but rather an advantage, where the person can easily fit into several social groups, his own as well as the groups that he encounters outside of his immediate environment.

Finally, the degree of difference depends also on the dominant group. If a non-English speaking child fails to conform to American customs, he is often looked upon as being different from the majority group. His speech pattern may particularly cause him to feel inadequate (J. R. Davitz, 1955 and A. Gesel, 1956).

When a child mispronounces his words, his peer group may ridicule him. This ridicule may increase his oral language problems. His peer group may also reject him. Spanish-speaking bilingual children seem to have problems of social adjustments due to pronunciation barriers (G. G. Thompson, 1962). They suffer from a normal linguistic growth if compared to their dominant peer group; and Thompson asks whether or not bilingualism is worth the resulting retardation in the common target language.

SECOND LANGUAGE STUDY

Careful consideration should be given to setting up second language learning curricula. This is particularly true when one considers that the child has not yet mastered his native tongue—English. Some educators feel that they ought to introduce second language teaching in kindergarten or first grade, while others would postpone it until the third or fourth grade. There are a number of educators who feel that junior high school age is the best time to introduce a second language (J. A. Fishman, 1955).

Because children differ widely in speech development, which may accelerate or retard their learning abilities, a general rule can hardly be used for all children. I think that some children will definitely be readier to learn a second language before others. However, since individualized instruction is too costly for large groups of students, postponing second language instruction at least until third grade may prove beneficial for the majority of American children.

There is a strong feeling among educators that by the time youngsters reach junior high school age, learning a second language may help rather than hamper their social or academic adjustment. Also, youngsters coming from linguistically impoverished home environments will have greater opportunity to use correct speech patterns, under a teacher's guidance, in school than out of school. The school teacher may actually help the child learn two languages, his native tongue and his second language—English.

Gifted children coming from linguistically superior home

environments might benefit from starting to study a second language as early as the third grade, but rarely before. This I think is especially true if youngsters already know grammatical structures in their native tongue; learning a second language is likely to be easier (Smoth, 1935).

LEARNING

The principal method for becoming proficient in a second language is through the learning process. Robert Politzer and Chas. Staubach (1965) define learning "as an observable change in a person's performance." Their main point is that learning involves an observable change in a person's behavior, and habit is an integral part of behavior which is affected by stimuli and response.

The authors further explain that educators classify learning in terms of (1) classical conditioning, and (2) instrumental learning. We shall consider classical conditioning first, and then proceed to instrumental learning.

Classical conditioning involves an "associated shift," i.e., a conditioned response may be produced by means of an association even though the primary stimulus may be absent. For example, the sentence, "I am reading a book," is presented on a flash card. After the learner has seen the sentence several times, he has learned to respond to the sentence even though he does not see it again. In other words, the learner has been conditioned to respond without the presence of a stimulus.

The learner's stimulus is an abstract symbol. In other words, symbols represent real objects by means of associated stimuli. But

the symbols are nothing more than abstractions which serve as a convention for linguistic usage. Example: the term ball represents the physical inanimate object with which children play. The majority of language students regard symbolic abstractions as the primary linguistic components.

Politzer and Staubach believe that language learners cannot utilize the associated shift as a learning method, because language learning is more complex than mere learning. This is true because the language learner has to react to new stimuli and responses with which he is often totally unfamiliar, e.g., new grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

If we should assume that the learner already knows his native tongue well enough, then mother tongue interference must be considered. In this case, the learner may attempt to acquire second language concepts with reference to his native tongue, i.e., from the familiar to the unfamiliar.

Instrumental learning, however, involves stimulus, association, response, reward, and satisfaction that the learner obtains as a result of performance. Reinforcement is also integral to instrumental learning. Effective language learning results particularly through the continual reinforcement of correct responses.

Positive transfer comes about as a result of the learner's familiarity with his mother tongue. A knowledge of many grammatical structures and a large vocabulary enables the learner to begin his second language learning from an advanced level. Based on my own observations, cognates are particularly helpful in second language

learning.

The key person helping the learner to control linguistic stimuli and responses, which the learner can compare with his native tongue, is the language instructor (Politzer and Staubach, 1965). The instructor is particularly able to check the accuracy of a learner's concise structural patterns, which helps him to distinguish analogical differences and similarities. The instructor may also be able to teach students to check their systematic learning steps. For example, "compre el libro" could be replaced by "lo compre," for grammatical accuracy.

A student's linguistic abilities ultimately depend upon his ability to understand grammatical relationships and a large vocabulary. The more intelligent the student the greater potential he has for controlling linguistic patterns. This is the main reason for the gifted child's ability to speak early in childhood, while children of average intelligence have their speech patterns delayed until a later age.

HOW NOT TO HAMPER LEARNING

Another significant point of view concerning learning a second language is discussed by Leonard Newmark (1965). He regards learning a second language in terms of the learner's need to fight off old habits in order to make room for new habits. The applied linguist analyzes the learner's contrastive structural drills of the target language, then he compares these drills with the learner's native tongue for the purpose of making the student's learning processes easier and helps him to fight off incorrect language habits.

Newmark interestingly points out that if a non-English learner were to learn English with each linguistic item treated as a separate unit (each phonological rule, semantic value, and stylistic nuance), a youngster might grow old before he could ever learn the second language, while an older person might die in the process.

Textbook programmers have a difficult job in deciding what structural items to include in each lesson. At best, states Newmark, textbook teaching emphasizes the sum total of many structural combinations. Newmark is correct in suggesting that textbook structures do not suffice for adequate instruction of students in a second language because "natural environment" learning brings about best results. Children who live in a foreign country learn their second language in a relatively short period. They do not learn individual linguistic items, but clusters of utterances and linguistic sound combinations.

An error frequently overlooked by psychologists and linguists is the importance of learning linguistic items in context. Newmark points out that students are actually hampered by attempting to learn linguistic items out of context, because they have to learn new responses by means of old stimuli. Just learning mere utterances seems to be a useless task. The perceptive instructor is able to teach students to create new utterances.

Newmark regards classroom instruction as a mere aid in stimulating the learning of a second language outside of the classroom. The classroom instructor is able to determine what linguistic material to emphasize or deemphasize in order that the students derive the maximum benefit from the learning process. From my own

observations which tend to confirm this, slow learners need more time to learn linguistic items while fast learners are bored with a slow learning process.

ERRONEOUS THINKING REGARDING SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

William R. Parker, while working for the United States National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State, noted that many Americans have three basic misconceptions regarding second language learning.

Their first misconception is that Americans lack the know-how to learn a second language as easily as people of other countries do. Parker believes that such erroneous thinking does not even deserve comment. For example, the Army's intensive language courses during World War II proved that many Americans learned a second language effectively. Parker explains that this kind of thinking is a mere rationalization for those not wanting to learn a second language.

Parker also points out that few Americans bothered to inquire about the percentage of foreigners who learned English, or how many years they devoted to such a study. However, the same Americans quickly concluded that they simply lacked linguistic ability. I believe that this attitude is perhaps their major stumbling block to learning a second language.

The next major misconception which still exists in the States is that there is some "super method" which will enable people to learn a second language within a few months. Using the "miracle drug

formula" seems to be the answer that many Americans are looking for.

This type of mistaken thinking comes primarily from the influence of newspaper advertisements that promote quick and easy learning promises. For example, a bilingual institute advertisement that promoted quick and easy learning promises read as follows: "This school gives you a 2-year bilingual secretarial course—Spanish and English—in six months. Previous knowledge of Spanish is unnecessary . . . . Results guaranteed for the average student. We give a three-year Spanish course in 40 hours." I have heard many similar promotions on the radio regarding second language learning.

Parker further explains that Berlitz beats all other promotional advertizers as far as language learning salesmanship is concerned. "You have already learned one language the Berlitz way." Rarely, however, do we get a true picture from such salesmanship. For the number of lessons or hours that it took to learn English in elementary school, secondary school, and college is rarely included as significant proof of linguistic proficiency. The main reason why Berlitz sometimes produces good language results is because of their 76 years of experience. I believe that there is no particular "miracle" method which may be regarded as effective in the majority of second language learning and teaching instances.

How does the general American public see second language learning? When, for instance, can we consider that a person has learned his mother tongue? For the ability to carry on a simple conversation can hardly be considered as having learned even one's

native tongue. The subtleties of a native or of a second language are a time consuming procedure. This leaves little possibility for short-cuts as far as effectiveness is concerned. Parker feels that the main reason for our desire to obtain quick learning returns is because of unclear objectives regarding second language instruction in our schools and colleges. In the past, states Parker, our major objectives were to instruct in the second language by means of the traditional grammar translation methods, and students could not carry on even a simple conversation in a foreign country.

Another misconception regarding second language teaching is that all traditional teaching methods should be thrown out and only the Army method implemented. This could not always work effectively because not all instructors are able to motivate the majority of students to learn effectively, especially in many states where language learning standards are low.

Two years of second language study is, for the most part, not enough for effective second language learning. However, some unusually intelligent students have learned a second language with great facility and at as rapid a learning rate as natives who learn their mother tongue. One American student, for instance, who studied Spanish in Latin America, could lecture in that language after only two months. I might add that these cases are indeed rare.

Parker points out that there are poor instructors in every field, and second language instruction is no exception to this fact. The number of second language teachers who do a poor job is probably

as large as any other group of teachers because of very low standards that exist in many States.

Some language tests, though their validity can be debated, do, however, point out that some people learn languages faster than others, while other people develop mental blocks against any language learning. However, I think that poor teaching methods can hardly be used as the excuse for some students' inability to learn a second language effectively.

Even fast learners cannot all be grouped into one slot, mainly because some students learn conversational skills faster than others, while others learn literature faster. The faster learners possess the innate ability to discriminate linguistic sounds distinctly. This ability seems to diminish with adolescence and past adolescence, where students view the learning of basic linguistic items as childish (see observation No. 3, verb usage).

Young children often learn a second language without the resentment of having to start as a beginner. Moreover, provided they have linguistic aptitude, they do not need careful motivation. However, linguistic aptitudes may be regarded as irrelevant to second languare learning. Especially, if poor teaching methods are used as evidence that children did not learn their second language effectively. Research in the field of linguistic aptitude, based on scientific tests, should prove a fruitful field for study.

WHY LEARN A SECOND LANGUAGE?

Parker feels that many unthinking people really fail to see the relevance for learning a second language. They tend to rationalize by saying, "I will forget it anyway, why learn it?" Parker admits that he forgot much of what he had learned in different foreign languages and he spoke a number of them. However, this is no reason to believe that he forgot all of his linguistic knowledge. The implication that just because a skill is partially lost through forgetting, it should not be learned in the first place, is contrary to the ideas of education. Any skill which is not used may be lost or forgotten. But just because we forget some of our knowledge is no reason not to want to learn it initially. Language learning is no different from other knowledge. Parker believes that children benefit from early language learning, especially the highly motivated and intelligent. Besides, refresher courses might pr ve useful, especially if pursued at a later age.

The question of how much a student learned before he forgot becomes clearer to us if we ask: How much has the student learned in the first place? I think that a two-year second language program is insufficient for linguistic proficiency, particularly two years of high school second language study. However, as previously mentioned, there are exceptions, and some very intelligent students may have the intellectual capacity to master a second language within a two-year period. Even two-year college language study is often insufficient for an average group of students, much less two years of high school second language study.

When using the Army Language School for a comparative purpose, we find that effective second language learning is due primarily to intelligence and motivation, excellent equipment, and practice which is fourfold when compared to many public schools, abroad and in the United States.

However, the main point which Parker wants to convey is that second language learning begins at an early age in many European countries, and more students are enrolled in language courses than in the States. This may be due to the greater need to communicate with neighboring countries because of their proximity.

As far as methods are concerned, European methods vary from the grammar translation to the oral-aural with few mechanical devices which are often too costly or unfeasible for the average European secondary school. In order of increasing priority are understanding, speaking, reading and writing.

Many American high schools, however, still have no modern language program. And many American colleges require no second language, as part of their curricula. But even the high schools that offer second language instruction as college preparation offer it in many instances beginning with 9th, 10th, or 11th grades. In the United States the total high school population studying a second language equals 14% (Parker, 1954).

In most of Europe second language learning is a serious concern. In August, 1953, United States delegates met with second language instructors from 18 nations in Ceylon, for a UNESCO seminar. Each representative spoke at least one second language;

and each of the nations represented, except for the United States, required that all secondary school students learn a second language for no less than a seven-year study period (Parker, 1954).

The American delegate to the Ceylon seminar agreed that America was not tuned in with the rest of the world, as far as second language learning is concerned. The teacher program abroad emphasized speaking fluency as the most significant skill, whereas in the States oral skill is in most instances not required.

The following graph summarizes second language learning effectiveness in thirty-five countries.

The summary shows that the starting age for beginners varies from seven to fourteen, in most public schools of these thirty-five countries. The majority of the thirty-five countries have a compulsory second language program, whereas in the United States second language study is a mere elective. However, there is a definite relationship between the starting age of a second language study and its effectiveness. The older the adolescent, the more effective is his second language learning (Parker, 1954).

Unusual as the truth may seem, the United States ranks thirty-fourth on the list of the thirty-five countries, in continuity of second language instruction. Argentina ranks thirty-fifth on the list and the program lasts for three years. In the United States, however, second language study is based on a four-year elective program (Parker, 1954).

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THIRTY-FIVE COUNTRIES

KEY — Compulsary Study; Elective Only

PARKER (1954)

26

THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER

Clay B. Christensen and Robert Shawl see each class in terms of possessing varying needs. The authors claim that each group of students must therefore be provided with particular objectives in order to meet their needs. The instructor has to determine what these needs are. If a fourth-year second language group of students cannot speak the language by the end of the fourth year, then oral language practice should be implemented. This may be attained by means of dialogue, grammar, literature, geography or history of the language. Whatever teaching aspect is presented, it has to be by means of a step-by-step approach. In order that students might learn their second language, the instructor should show students how to freely mutate items: for example, "give me this book," "give me the book which you have in your hand," or simply, "give it to me now!"

Christensen and Shawl state further that conversational Spanish or English lends itself to reduced grammatical structures, "deletion" or their "expansion," as indicated in the above examples. The authors point out that native speakers often know intuitively how to reduce or expand language structures.

But beginning second language students may have difficulty in converting reduced syntactical structures into parallel expanded forms, because they are unfamiliar with the language. However, the effective instructor finds devices and procedures to teach students grammatical structures; and he knows how to use visual aids for

conceptualizing linguistic items.

BILINGUAL WORD MEANING

Another significant aspect of bilingualism pertains to word meanings which are culturally determined. Robert Lado (1957) explains that the term "house" may be defined as a dwelling in most American urban centers. However, I believe that on the outskirts of Santiago, Chile, a straw hut is often referred to as a human dwelling.

Lado states further that the instructor should be aware of the differences in word meaning which vary according to each cultural group even within the same country, city, or residential neighborhood. The term "la siesta" is peculiar to Spanish-speaking countries. Non-Spanish-countries have terms with exact meanings when translated. In the English language, "to pull someone's leg" cannot be translated literally into the Spanish language, because this idiomatic expression is peculiar to the English language.

Lado points out that word meanings can be classified according to lexical interpretation. For instance, in English, "books," "caps," and "mats" are plurals merely by the addition of "s," but in Chinese numbers, the numbers two, three, or four must be added in front of words in order to identify the plural of objects.

Generally speaking, word meanings pertain to the gist of ideas, which the speaker wants to convey, in each particular language. Spanish-speaking people may name a boy Jesus as a reverence for Christ, whereas English-speaking people may find the name Jesus

irreverent, when naming a youngster.

Some Spanish meanings are especially difficult to translate into English. For example, "el primer piso." when translated equals the second floor and not the first as it might appear. "I am missing a book," can be translated as "me falta un libro," which bears a slight translation difference. Idiomatic expressions like these present particular linguistic problems which the instructor needs to be aware of, when instructing non-natives in a second language.

As mentioned before, some cognates have definite English and Spanish similarities, which can be used for helping students and for motivating them to continue with second language learning. However, false cognates present particular linguistic problems. They should be clearly identified. "La professora," for example, may mean a high school or a college instructor. There seems to be little variance between the two as far as translation is concerned, but there is great difference in meaning in the English.

Regarding who has learned a second language fluently, Lado believes that the learner who has mastered oral fluency will have little trouble learning to read and to write in the second language. Lado's assertion seems to conform with my own experience and observations.

But in order to alleviate some of the learning processes and to aid the learner in becoming proficient in oral or written communication skills, John B. Carroll(1966) proposes the use of programmed self-instruction. His proposal is based primarily on three main ideas:

1. The learner's terminal behavior.

2. Step sequencing with each step considered a learning task that is presented and responded to in a testable manner before proceeding to a subsequent step.
3. At each step, the learner may check his correct responses for accuracy with the programmed instructional material. Carrollbelieves that programmed instruction is especially practical in second language learning.

Concerning who has learned a second language, Sol Saporta (1966) believes that students must possess three main abilities to become fluent in second language conversation.

1. The ability to distinguish grammatical from non-grammatical sentences.
2. The ability to understand grammatical utterances.
3. The ability to distinguish between ambiguous and non-ambiguous sentences, and to understand relationships between sentences.

The learner, states the author, must have an innate ability to see sentences in terms of representing degrees of abstraction; he must also see sentences as completed formal processes from which other sentences may be derived. Example: the kernel sentence, I am running: and the expanded form, I am running very rapidly.

Christensen and Shawl (1968) claim that instructors should show their students existing grammatical relationships as well as audio-lingual material which is closely related, for learning

enhancement. But grammatical points which change meanings should also be emphasized. For example, "me gusta la corbata" and "me quita la corbata."

HOW VALID ARE THE TESTS?

One of the most crucial problems in identifying linguistically superior children from among the disadvantaged groups is the establishing of valid tests. The Institute of Psychological Research of Teacher's College, Columbia University undertook an experiment by teaching English to migrant Puerto Rican and Spanish-speaking children, in order to find linguistic differences in outcomes by the use of contrasting measures. The Puerto Rican children were allowed to stay in a separate group until they knew enough English to adjust to the school environment. The other procedure was to send junior high school age Puerto Rican children directly into regular classes.

The children who came into regular junior high school classes had a greater opportunity to master English than the Puerto Rican group. They were also better able to learn actual subject matter than the former group (Lorge, Irvings and Mayans, 1954). However, there seems to be much disagreement on this subject in contemporary society.

Because of the occurrence of apparent retardation among bilingual children, the group of researchers administered an English and Spanish intelligence test to the group of children. But because of linguistic barriers neither one of the tests could be used with accuracy.

April 21, 1970

OBSERVATION NO. 1

Memorial Junior High School

Grades 7-9 Beginning ESL

Eighteen Mexican students who speak Spanish but are beginners in ESL were involved in an experiment in which eleven present tense and infinitive verbs were used in a controlled composition. Some of the verbs in the composition were: "is," "likes," "works," "to speak," "to read," "to write," "cares for," "cooks," "cleans," "shops." After 5-10 minute practice sessions, the students filled in the correct verb forms. The errors ranged from 1-9 among the group. This observation and several other oral quizzes indicate that the group of students whose ages varied from 12-15, and who had from 6-9 months of English as a second language instruction had difficulty with present tense verbs and infinitives.

April 22, 1970

OBSERVATION NO. 2

Memorial Junior High School

Grades 7-9 Beginning ESL

Eighteen Mexican students were involved in the second experiment, in which seventeen words were presented. Having shown the students a cue for each word, helped the group to identify the English

terms orally. For example, a flash card was presented with a word and on the back of it a first letter cue was given. The students looked at a number of words and their respective cues. After about 25 minutes of practice, the students had memorized the words and the majority of the students constructed original sentences with the vocabulary which they have learned. Only 3 students from the group had difficulty with constructing sentences.

This experiment indicates that if material is presented logically, followed by reinforcement learning results are considerably improved.

April 24, 1970

OBSERVATION NO. 3

Memorial Junior High School

Grades 7-9 Beginning ESL

The same group of students repeated sentences which the instructor presented using facial gestures, a mimicry method. Negative and positive sentence construction were used. For example: I fly to New York. No. I don't fly to New York.

However, when the students were required to use original sentence construction they had great difficulty in understanding these sentences. They requested interpretation of the sentences so that they could understand how to make their own.

Another barrier was the pronunciation of "th," "rd," and "s" in the plural sentence construction presented to the group of beginning ESL. See page 7 of this project.

The subsequent suggested lesson plan is primarily designed to help students to express themselves clearly in a correct usage of English. The name of the school is merely used as an example of a Latin American leader who fought for Peru's independence from Spain in 1824 which was named Bolivar.

That idea that two leaders can be compared as having struggled for freedom from European dominance is originally used to portray the battles won by Thomas Jefferson (the independence of the thirteen colonies on October 19, 1781) from England and Simon Bolívar's Spain in 1824.

The time sequence is flexible and would have to be used according to a particular group of students. In some cases the hour would be sufficient for the presentation, but it might take several days in other cases.

Another flexible aspect of the lesson plan is the use of the motivating device of a sightseeing tour. A museum, the Zoo, or a baseball game might be used rather than the San Diego Public Library.

FLEXIBILITY ORIGINALITY

Lesson Plan

by

Frieda L. Levinsky

Subject: English Date: May 25, 1970

School: Simón Bolívar Student Teacher: M. Poe

Grade Level: 12 Units Building Paragraphs

Objective:

1. To help students to express themselves clearly. in concisely, well-written paragraphs and essay.
2. To develop skill in self-criticism .
3. To work with other students.
4. To organize a comparative essay.

Reminders: Sightseening tours will begin May 29, 1970.

The class will visit the San Diego Public Library.

Learning Activities and Materials

Time	Teacher	Students
8:35	Read: Topic sentences, pp. 343-345, People and Progress: "Jefferson"	
8:45		Show: Topic sentence, pp. 352-362, People and Progress.

FLEXIBILITY ORIGINALITY

Page 2

Time	Teacher	Students
*8:55	Read: Topic sentence, pp. 363-369, People and Progress. "Bolívar"	
9:10		Students write an original paragraph based on Simón Bolívar's pictures, pp. 369-372. People and Progress. Please exchange papers, and proofread twice.
9:20	Assignment Write a comparative essay based on Thomas Jefferson's and Bolívar's leadership abilities, pp. 342-354 and 363-372. The essay is due May 29, 1970.	

Post analysis:

1. What is the title of the comparative essay?
2. Does the title fit the essay?
3. How is the essay organized?
4. When was it written (Date)?

Check:

1. Appropriateness of essay (subject matter)
2. Conciseness of paragraphs
3. Self-criticism skill
4. Accuracy of proofreading

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